

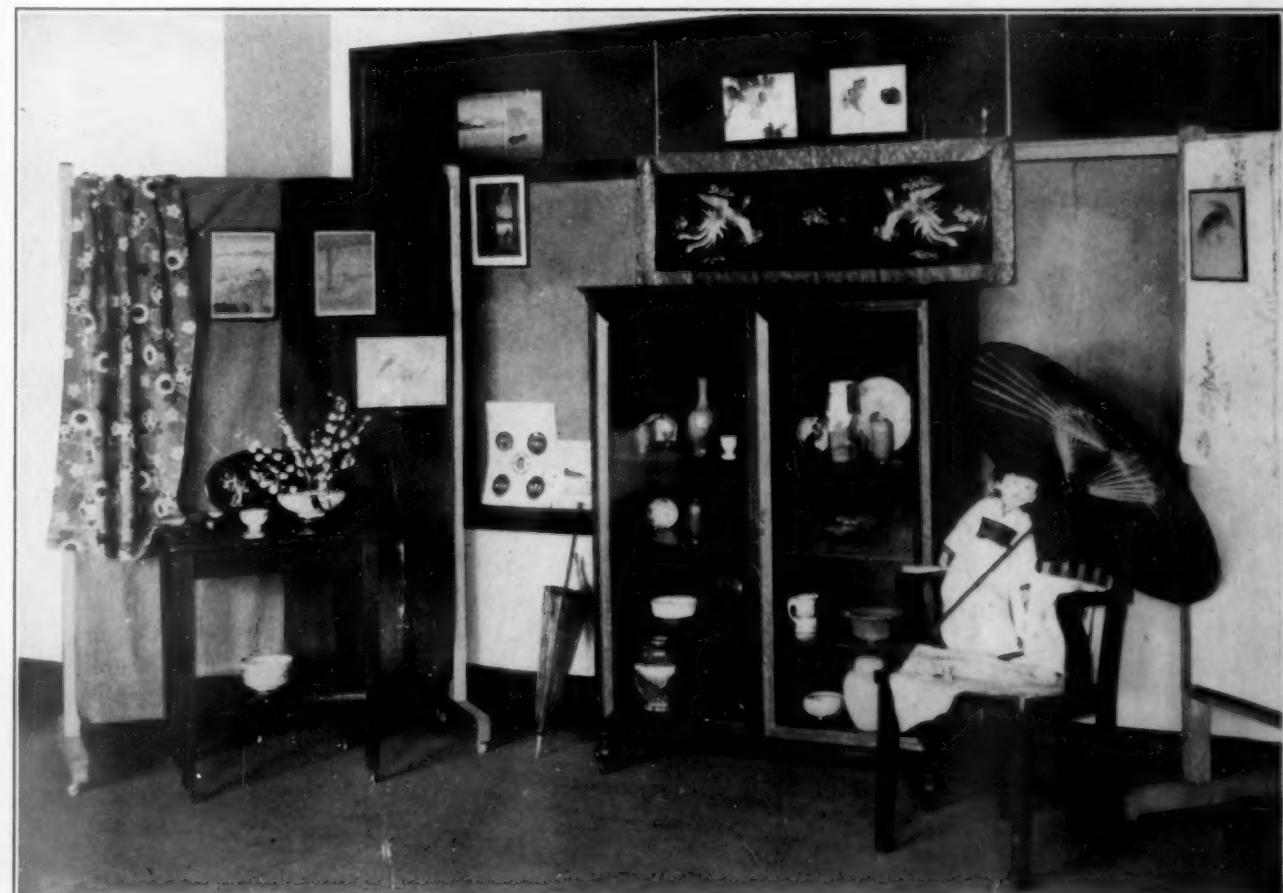
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SCHOOL LIFE

Volume XI
Number 9

May
1926



EXAMPLES OF NATIONAL ARTS ARE BEFORE THE PUPILS OF WILMINGTON, DEL.

Published Monthly [except July and August] by the Department of the Interior
Bureau of Education Washington, D.C.

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

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SCHOOL LIFE is an official organ of the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. It is published monthly except in July and August. The subscription price, 50 cents a year, should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., and not to the Bureau of Education. Single copies are sold at 5 cents each. For postage to countries which do not recognize the mailing frank of the United States, add 25 cents a year.

SCHOOL LIFE

Published Monthly, except July and August, by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education
Secretary of the Interior, HUBERT WORK - - - - - Commissioner of Education, JOHN JAMES TIGERT

VOL. XI.

WASHINGTON, D. C., MAY, 1926

No. 9

Certain Objectives of Elementary Education Require Greater Emphasis

Health Should be Made a Fundamental Objective in Elementary Schools. Instill the Rudiments Essential to Functioning in Modern Society. Develop Efficiency in Personal and Social Matters. Obvious Need of Character as a Primary Purpose of Elementary Instruction. Greater Diffusion of Education Has Not Led to General Discharge of Civic Obligations

By JNO. J. TIGERT
United States Commissioner of Education

IT IS understood that we have in mind in this discussion the first six grades of the school and are to suggest the desirable goals of instruction rather than the subject matter or curriculum content which should be employed. Nor do I believe that agreement can be reached as to means until educators have arrived at some working understanding of the ends. We are dealing with finalities, not with methods, materials, or workmen.

Recently my attention was attracted to this aphorism on the cover of a little magazine: "Education is our only political, industrial, and individual safety. Outside of the Ark of Education, all is deluge." I took up my pencil and wrote: "And every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth after its kind has crept into the Ark of Education." Verily, we have taken every living thing into the schools—and a good many dead things besides languages and fossils.

Social Adjustment a Recurrent Problem

Let us assume that education involves the process of discovering natural laws and analyzing human experience, and culminates in a proper application of this knowledge so that man may derive the maximum of social and individual welfare in his present environment. Let us assume likewise that social and individual welfare are consistent and correlative. Some one may arise to dispute these assumptions, particularly the latter. Undoubtedly, the progress of knowledge has

transformed life on this planet. Change will continue and social adjustment will be a recurring problem. But we must not forget that the educational process will never function without regard for the individual child. Emphasis upon individual needs should parallel increasing attention to social welfare as an educational objective.

Growth Along Lines of Racial Aptitudes

All instruction presupposes certain inherent presentiments, preparation, intuition, and capacity in those who are taught; we can only teach what the individual is capable of learning and, in a sense, what he already knows. This principle of education is likewise a social law. Nations and peoples grow only along the lines of their racial aptitudes and social tendencies. Try to drive an individual or a nation along other lines and you are confronted with retardation, incapacity for improvement, and often rebellion.

If we make these assumptions with reference to the definition and the nature of education, can we not say that we have enough knowledge, scientific and otherwise, regarding the boy and girl of to-day, the school of to-day, and our social problems of to-day, so postulate that there are a few general paths that elementary education should take and that there are certain objectives which require greater emphasis in the immediate future if we are to promote the welfare of the child and the nation more effectively? Perhaps we know enough to say that these few general pathways should converge upon a

goal of fundamental importance in our stage of civilization.

I believe that we have sufficient empirical knowledge to-day to enable us to point out certain objectives of elementary education that should be stressed at this time, without waiting until the possibilities of natural law and human experience are exhausted. If any of these paths lead us astray or others must be added, experience and increasing scientific analysis should enable us to detect them. And just as each of the various openings and gambits in the chess game attempts to bring about a characteristic relation of pieces and pawns from which an attack is made to checkmate the king, and thus a number of tentative objectives converge upon a single grand purpose, so it may be that we may venture to suggest that the several general objectives of education at this time are driving toward some supreme end of highest significance in the age in which we live.

Established Objectives Afford Working Basis

If the objectives of elementary education could be established in this way, even tentatively, we should have a working basis upon which to construct a curriculum. All curriculum content could be tested in relation to these objectives, and those materials which were found to be most effective in promoting the ends desired could be included. Materials unrelated to our objectives, or duplicating other materials more effective and already sufficient for the purpose, would then be eliminated from the curriculum.

Portions of address before Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C., February 22, 1926.

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I believe that there is general agreement that health is a fundamental objective in the elementary schools. I am aware that the scientific curriculum makers will say: "Nobody knows what health is or how it should be taught." Strictly speaking, that may be true, but in our present understanding of social problems, health, and health teaching do we not know enough to say that better health is something devoutly to be wished for, that it depends in large measure upon proper eating, drinking, sleeping, exercising, cleansing, breathing, protection from disease, correction of remediable defects, and certain other things upon which we are reasonably well agreed?

Establish Good Health Habits

Do we not know enough about health teaching at the present time to say that it is useless to attempt to teach the philosophy or principles of hygiene to children in the elementary schools, but that successful health teaching depends very largely upon the formation of proper health habits among children of this age, and good health habits can be formed if we have systematic physical examination, periodic weighing and measuring, daily inspections, regular and careful supervision of exercise and play, complete records, and so on through the program that our present experience suggests?

Furthermore, when we know that mental phenomena are somehow correlated with and organically conditioned upon health and bodily vigor, when we have reasonably accurate data with reference to the existence of physical defects among school children, when we know that one-third of the men examined in the late war were found to be physically unfit for any kind of military service and one-half unfit for unlimited service, and when we know that our Nation suffers an annual economic loss due to preventable disease and death among wage earners that is greater than our entire annual expenditure for all kinds of education, and when we have other information equally as significant with reference to social conditions, are we not safe in saying that our present knowledge of the conditions in the country of health and methods of teaching justify us in asserting that health should be made a fundamental objective in the philosophy of elementary education?

Can Proceed with Present Knowledge

I believe that we can answer all these questions very emphatically in the affirmative. We can then proceed practically in the light of present knowledge and needs, while the scientific analysis of health, methods of teaching, relation of mind and body, human experience, and other related matters may continue from time to time to shed new light upon the problems involved.

Again, I think that there will be general agreement that we have sufficient knowledge of the problems involved to say that elementary education should aim very definitely to implant the fundamentals upon which depend the use of written and spoken language and numbers, and to instill the rudiments which are essential to efficient functioning in a modern society and which are likewise the basis upon which a broad superstructure of culture may be erected in later years. By all this, I have in mind the mastery of the vehicles of expression and intercommunication, a general grasp of the history, customs, and habits of the peoples who have created our civilization, including a beginning of discrimination with regard to contributions of art, music, science, and industry. I use the word "mastery" deliberately and with the implication that, due to the multiplicity of purposes now in vogue in the school program or for some other reason, we are not now thoroughly teaching the fundamentals. I am convinced that we shall do better if we strive for a few things and do them well than if we attempt much and master little or nothing.

Curriculum Makers Have Banned Term "Culture"

I am aware that the curriculum makers sometimes allude with pity or scorn to those so naive as to suggest such general purposes as I mention here. Possibly, of all the terms descriptive of the goals of education which have been weighed and found wanting by the purveyors of scientific knowledge in the field of educational aims, the term "culture" has been banned with the greatest finality.

I make bold to assert that we have sufficient general agreement as to what culture means, sufficient knowledge about how culture is imparted, and more than sufficient knowledge of the dearth of culture in this country at the present time to justify us in saying that it is a fundamental purpose in the scheme of the elementary school. The fact that so many people prefer "jazz" to music; the books of the hour, with their sordid appeal to sex and vulgarity, to literature; the trashy and salacious shows to drama, and similar predilections, indicate that we need a real invasion of culture.

Illiteracy May Have Some Compensation

Illiteracy is such a serious tragedy that one hesitates to suggest that it could have any possible virtue, but a sampling of some of the popular literary pabulum that is now being swallowed by the American people would lead one to surmise that illiteracy may have some compensation and at least serves as a literary vaccination which renders one immune to mental pollution. It is recorded that the American people rejected as a free gift and our art galleries

would not provide wall space for Whistler's portrait of his mother, which now hangs in Luxembourg Gallery in Paris, and is said to be valued at more than a million dollars. It is not pleasant or provocative of patriotism to dwell upon these things, but they certainly point clearly to the need of a thorough injection of a broad and deep ground work of culture in the elementary school

Emphasis on Learning by Doing

A third general purpose of the elementary school should be efficiency in both personal and social matters. I realize that the hair-splitting analysts may condemn this objective as being almost as indefinite and vague as culture. But the mighty emphasis which has been developed in recent years upon learning by doing is indicative that we sense the fact, however indistinct the concept may be at the present time, that we need to give the boy or girl of the elementary school a better preparation to meet practical situations. We see the need of more hard work and the skills of action.

Of course, there is nothing vocational implied and, while the major effort toward vocational diagnosis should be postponed to the junior high-school period, still, I believe that the elementary school has a distinct obligation in discovering and developing aptitudes and interests of a nonvocational character. It should at least begin to lay a foundation upon which vocational training may be later built. Likewise, economic efficiency (which is more than thrift), perseverance, industry, and the joy of effort belong here. Education is not simply the emancipation of the intellect, but it implies the liberation of the will, skill, and satisfaction in successful achievement. Consequently, our third objective supplements and correlates our second objective.

Efficiency and Culture not Antagonistic

Efficiency and culture should not be antagonistic; they are allies in our educational scheme. The "impractical scholar" has too long been a by-word in the world. One of the greatest scholars in a university I once attended tried to cut a plank to make a shelf. He wanted to shorten it two feet and went through two operations, cutting off one foot at each end. Good practical common sense and skill in action has sometimes been lost in scholarship. We are not inveighing against learning, but are pointing out that knowing much and doing well are not contradictory. In 1777, the Marquis de Lafayette, in a letter to a friend, wrote as follows: "I read; I study; I examine; I listen; I reflect; and out of all this I try to form an idea into which I put as much common sense as I can."

Higher living implies culture and also implies character. Character education

should certainly be a fundamental objective of the present-day elementary school. The horrible statistics of increasing homicides, divorces, and crime are shocking and alarming thoughtful persons. The number of homicides in the United States has trebled in the past 25 years. In 20 years we have had 170,000; of these, 34,000 have since died; 18,000 are still in prison, and 118,000 walk our streets free and unmolested. In 1921, we had 32,844 burglaries, 49,460 robberies and 10,000 murders. In England and Wales during the same year, 211 robberies were reported to the police, and fewer than 100 murders. In all of France about 385 killings and 47 robberies were presented for trial. In 1870 in the United States there was 1 divorce for every 18 marriages. Last year there was one divorce for every eight marriages. The percentage of crime now among boys and girls of high-school age reported by reputable authorities has become almost incredible and I refuse to give any further currency to the statistics on this and other shocking social conditions. We have enough to know that there has been a serious breakdown in character and integrity. No doubt, most of us will readily admit that the social need of character instruction is great, but the difficult problem here is how to teach it.

Education once Confined to Small Group

The evolution of purpose in education is traceable with tolerable ease. In ancient times, when citizenship was the right of a few, and most men were slaves or enjoyed only partial rights of citizenship, education was a luxury for a small group. This view was intensified in Europe with the renaissance of Greek and Roman culture, but when, after the Dark Ages, the Roman Church assumed the rôle of bringing order out of chaos as both a temporal and religious power, education became peculiarly the task of the church and the prerogative of the priesthood. This idea persisted in America. Witness, for example, how largely the colleges of our country were religious in origin and purpose.

With the growth of democratic political ideas, education has become secular and not only the privilege of the many, but, in the case of elementary education, a necessity which the state attempts to enforce upon all.

Must Find Way to Produce Character

We have wisely separated the functions of church and state, but, in avoiding the Scylla of political interference with religion, we have steered upon the Charybdis of state education without religion. It is doubtful if we can introduce religious instruction in the public school without interference with religious freedom, but

we must find a way to produce character effectively. Just how we are to solve the problem is difficult to suggest. We are making studies at the present time. There are the various plans whereby children are dismissed from the school for religious instruction in the church of their choice, such as are in use at Gary, Ind.; Toledo, Ohio; and other places. Then, too, we are making considerable progress with moral instruction. The Character Education Institution has done a great deal to stimulate research in this field of character training and its efforts have resulted in the Iowa plan. Moral instruction has been tried on a large scale in France and reports are that results are gratifying. The methods can be successfully evolved and lie outside the scope of this discussion, but we are stressing the obvious need of character as a primary purpose of the elementary school.

Statement of Aims Essentially Overlapping

We have offered four fundamental objectives as the end of elementary education—health, mastery of the fundamentals as a basis of culture, personal and social efficiency, and character. These objectives are not exhaustive, nor mutually exclusive. Any statement of aims is essentially overlapping, and, to some extent, artificial. Such terms as recreation, worthy home membership, proper use of leisure time, and other current phrases all intermix as ends of education. Further, we do not pretend to have set down these four objectives in the order of importance.

Let us return, in conclusion, to our figure of the chess game. We have set out four general lines of departure for the elementary school, similar to the conventional openings in the chess game. Do these lines of attack, to be employed by the school, converge as do the openings in the chess game upon a major purpose?

Major Objective is Worthy Citizenship

We have traced the evolution of the purpose of the school. We have already hinted that the major objective of the school to-day is worthy citizenship. In the medieval period, it was service of the church. To-day, a state-supported system of education implies a system devoted primarily to state service. Our four objectives converge upon the idea of good citizenship. The man in poor health can not make the best citizen and may become a liability to the state; likewise, the illiterate, the ignorant, the inefficient, and the wrong-doer. In the age in which we live, citizenship is the primary function of the school. As the social organism develops, it may be something else at another time, but we are now witnessing the flowering of demo-

cratic principles in social organization, which rests upon education as a basis.

Unfortunately the increased diffusion of education in this country has not everywhere been attended by better citizenship. As knowledge has grown, the discharge of civic obligations has not everywhere correspondingly developed. For example, once 80 per cent of the eligible electorate voted in national elections. This has steadily diminished until now scarcely 50 per cent of the eligible voters exercise that privilege and we are among the lowest of the civilized nations in the percentage of voting citizens. Even Germany, so lately established on a democratic political basis, turns out 80 per cent of her voters.

Present Program will Meet Situation

We are all encouraged at the rapid progress we have made toward better methods of teaching citizenship in the school and there is little doubt that the educational program of to-day will meet the situation adequately. We are decidedly optimistic about the school of to-day and the future. It has shown remarkable aptitude in adapting itself to the need of the hour. It is probably the most flexible institution that we have and has made more progress in the past decade than at any other time in history.

I began this discourse with a picture of the Ark of Education, laboring on the surface of the deluge. I did this because I remembered the words of God to Noah: "Whenever I shall bring a cloud on the earth, the bow shall be upon the cloud." It requires no educational Noah to see spread above the Ark of Education a resplendent rainbow, which is the reflection of the glorious triumph that our present plans for training citizenship shall eventually achieve. I think we can readily detect amid the brilliantly colored bands of that rainbow of worthy citizenship the unmistakable hues of good health, broad culture, economic prosperity, and noble character.



Popular Approval of Enlarged School Expenditures

Voters of St. Louis, Mo., have approved by an overwhelming majority a school tax rate of 85 cents. It is estimated that the income from this tax, with that from all other sources during the next four years, the period for which the tax is authorized, will be approximately \$50,000,000. This election followed closely upon the approval by the board of education of Superintendent Maddox's recommendation to expend more than \$6,000,000 in building, and also \$95,000 for curriculum revision during the present year.—H. H. Davis, research assistant in charge of financial studies, St. Louis.

Citizens' Military Training Camps Receive Commendation

Forty-nine Institutions of Learning Offer Scholarships to Training-Camp Students. Physical Directors Indorse Methods of Training. Parents Testify to Benefits, and Boys are Enthusiastic. Government Bears All Expense

By MAJOR IRVING J. PHILLIPSON
The Adjutant General's Department, United States Army

CITIZENS' Military Training Camps will enter upon their sixth season of activity with the brightest of prospects and with hearty indorsement from the various components of national life.

One of the outstanding events of last year's procurement campaign was the unsolicited offer of Columbia University to award a scholarship to a worthy training-camp student of the Second Corps Area. Leading colleges and universities had indorsed the training camps movement and recognized it as a factor in the educational development of the Nation, but this was the first tangible expression of scholastic interest. Columbia set the pace and other colleges were quick to fall in line. Unsought but very welcome offers of scholarships came into the War Department from schools in every section of the country, and this year 49 institutions of learning are offering a greater number of scholarships to the young men attending Citizens Military Training Camps. The universities, 17 in number, are scattered over the country from Yale to Southern California; Carnegie Institute is among the 7 technical schools listed; and the remaining number comprises 13 military schools and 12 colleges of good standing.

Usually the scholarship covers tuition and is limited to the corps area in which the school is located. The highest estimated money value is \$700, but certain schools will retain the student for the full four years' course if he proves himself worthy. In some, but not all instances, it is specified that the award must be made to a young man who would not otherwise have an opportunity of attending college. Many training-camp students are actively engaged in business, and attendance at college would be impracticable for them, but to this particular class of students, the extension courses and night school scholarships offered by certain business and technical schools afford a means of self-improvement that should make an especial appeal to them.

High-School Credit for Camp Attendance

It is not only by means of college scholarships that educators are showing their interest and cooperation. In many States the public schools, or more especially the high schools, are offering a half, third or a quarter of a unit credit for attendance at the summer training camp. And physical directors laud and indorse the methods of physical development pursued at the camps, and they recom-

mend attendance to high school and potential collegiate athletes.

The athletic or physical phase of camp life was a long cherished vision of a devotee of American boyhood who held the interest of the oncoming populace at heart and who knew and understood the needs of the rising generation. Theodore Roosevelt advocated physical training for young men because a healthy body and a clean mind fit a man to grapple with the problems of the future. It was natural that this should be a matter of prime interest to him for he, who had been a sickly boy, by conscientious training in the great outdoors, developed himself into a robust and rugged man. As one having first-hand knowledge, he said, "Next to the public school, the military tent—where boys sleep side by side—will go down in our history as the greatest agent of health and democracy." The vision of Roosevelt has become an actuality in the Citizens' Military Training Camps.

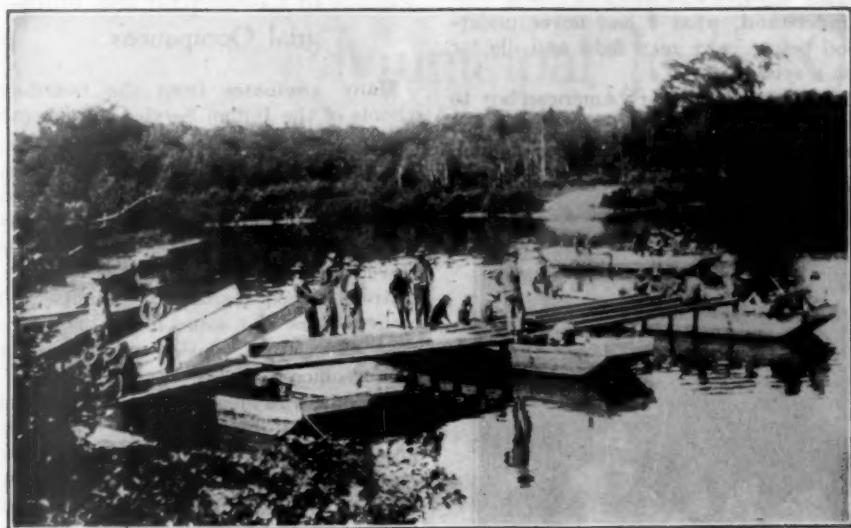
Training Camps Meet an Urgent Need

What Roosevelt knew both as a man and as a parent is known to thousands of parents, but many of them, although filled with ambitious desires for their sons' development, lack the means for giving them a healthy camp life. To many people living in cities, the park bench represents their only contact with nature. With the opening of the training camps, however, the Government has met an urgent need of the people; it provides facilities for most excellent training in citizenship, physical development, and military tactics, and it is paying all necessary expenses. There is none so poor as to be deprived of these advantages; none so rich that he can afford to miss them.

Possibly it was with uncertainty or doubt that parents first sent their sons to camp, but when the young men returned



Bathing in Lake Champlain is one of the attractions of the Plattsburg Camp



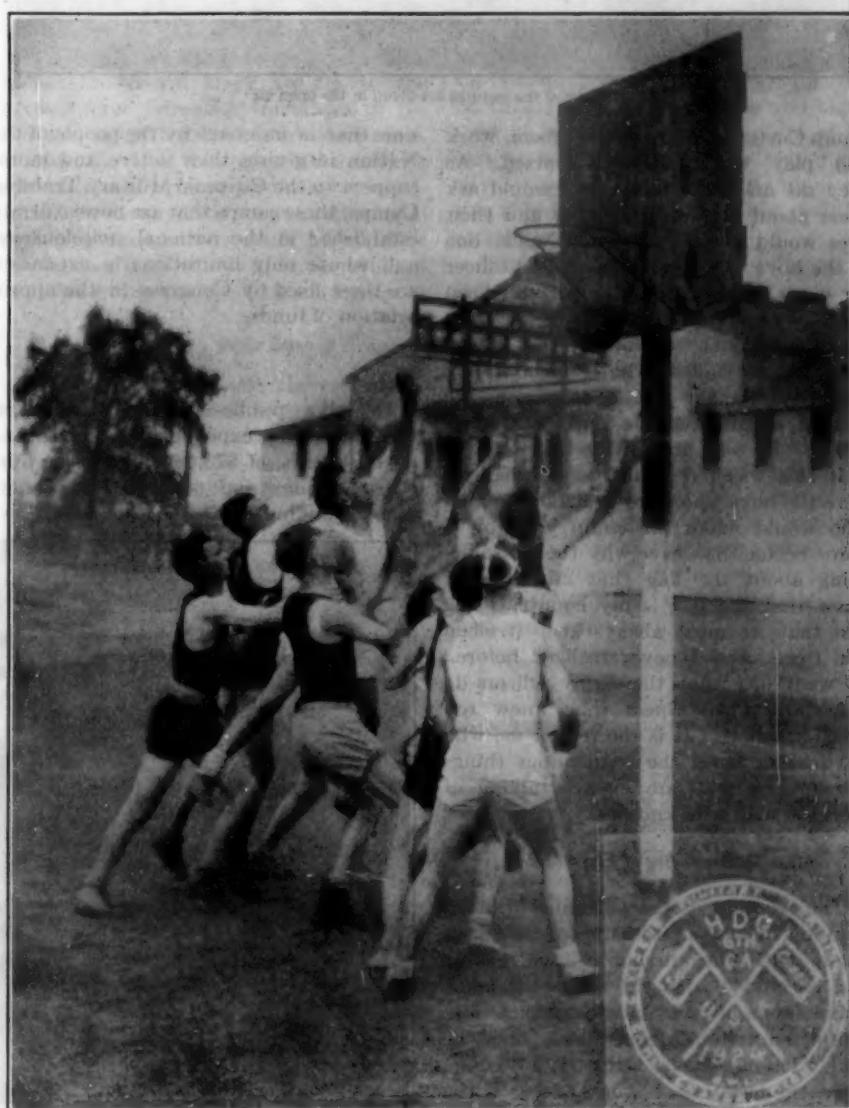
Pontoon bridges are built in quick time at Camp Devens, Mass.

clear-eyed, happy, healthy and enthusiastic, all fears were put to rest, and parents "who know" became an important factor in future procurement campaigns. The father of one boy who had attended camp thus expressed his opinion: "I have four other boys who will attend training camp when their ages will permit. One will go next year. Could there be any better recommendation than a man wanting all of his boys to take this training?" Another wrote: "My son having been in your camp the past summer, I want to drop you a brief letter while it is yet on my mind, to express my entire approval of all that the camp meant to the boy. I would want him to go if it meant a real sacrifice and was for the good of the country. But there is no mistaking the fact that the boy is the gainer and that such fathers as I can but admit we are fortunate that Uncle Sam offers American boys such a chance. It was good for my boy physically, morally, and in its general effects. I am most assuredly willing he shall return next year. If I were not, I'd have a hard time keeping him away."

Mothers are Especially Appreciative

And what of the boy's best friend, his mother? One mother takes great pleasure in the fact that, "He seems to take hold of whatever presents itself to him with more earnestness. Physically he has developed remarkably since July 1. Of this we feel very proud, because he used to be a frail youngster; and I am especially grateful to notice that he is much more mentally alert. I assure you we are one family that are very glad our boy had this opportunity, not only for the good he received personally but for the moral upbuilding he received in regard to his duty to his country and fellow man." Maternal interest is thus expressed in another letter: "It taught my son what he can never forget—how to be

The need for military training is a thought that we prefer to disregard in an era of peace and national prosperity; but no less a personage than the Father of Our Country has warned us, "To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace." Samuel Woodfill, whom General Pershing characterized as the outstanding hero of the World War and who was decorated by all the Allied Powers for his gallantry in battle, speaks of the camps from this standpoint: "I wish every young man might realize the value to himself of the course at the citizens' military training camps. Here is acquired the faculty of correct and quick decision and self-reliance in emergency. The young men who take this training will be more effective in their daily duties and will have laid a solid foundation for better citizenship. The training which Uncle Sam gave me certainly saved my life on the field of battle and enabled me, as well, to render a service to my country. The trained man, in all undertakings in life, has a chance—the other, poor fellow, has none."



Basketball is a favorite sport at Camp Custer

But as the sine qua non of the training camp is the young man himself, his thoughts on the matter are of the utmost importance. Mary Mehan Moore, a reporter for the St. Louis Journal, gives the following account of an interview with 15 youths who had attended

symbol of right and freedom. And now I understand, what I had never understood before, why men fight and die for such a symbol."

It is the right of every American boy to have such memories as those of Theron Couch. This is an acknowledged fact and



Many of the lectures are given in the open air

Camp Custer: "According to them, work and play was judiciously mixed. As they sat and talked to me, I would ask them about this thing or that and their eyes would gleam. Theron Couch, one of the boys who was made a cadet officer for merit, said that nothing would keep him away from the camp next year. 'I know,' Couch continued, 'that if the fellows knew half of what it means they would all be like me. The lessons we learned could never be duplicated elsewhere. It was brought so close to us that this was our country and that we were the boys who were to make the men who would make the country. Now I know better than ever why there's something about the flag that stirs me. I know that the flag is my country's flag and that we must always keep it clean and free. And I never realized before,' he went on, 'that the Army officers do not want war. Guess they know too much about it. It is the rest of us, who have never faced the tremendous things war means, who are always talking of war; the man who knows says nothing.'"

Brings Understanding of Flag's Meaning

The reaction of the Citizens' Military Training Camp's student to the days begun with the stirring call of reveille and concluded with the throbbing notes of taps is one of vivid memories that were summed up by Theron Couch when he said, "I thought as I watched the flag go down the last time at Custer, that is the flag of my country and I am saluting the

one that is indorsed by the people of the Nation in giving their active and moral support to the Citizens' Military Training Camps, these camps that are now so firmly established in the national consciousness and whose only limitations in expansion are those fixed by Congress in the appropriation of funds.



Detroit's public-school program contemplates the expenditure, during the next 10 years, of \$73,000,000 for the purchase of sites and construction of new school buildings.



Indians in Commercial and Industrial Occupations

Many graduates from the boarding schools of the Indian Service have found employment in various pursuits of life—in commercial and business occupations, in factories, on farms, and as nurses, housekeepers, or teachers. Approximately 2,000 Indians are employed by the Government Indian Service as teachers, matrons, disciplinarians, assistants, and housekeepers and some in the performance of clerical duties in school or agency offices.

In industries outside of the service it appears that their work is generally acceptable and their services are in reasonable demand. The Indian Bureau, through its field employees, endeavors to assist individuals in procuring employment suited to their respective abilities and to encourage them to persevere in some chosen pursuit and to become respected citizens in their communities.

A considerable number of Indian blood have made for themselves an honorable name in American life and several have represented their States in Congress.



Comenius, Advocate of World Peace Through Education

The birthday of John Amos Comenius, March 28, will in future be observed in all the schools of Czechoslovakia by a "peace lesson" of a half hour. An order to this effect was issued by the ministry of education on March 6. Comenius, the great Czech teacher, was the first to advocate a world peace campaign through general education of all nations.—Emanuel V. Lippert.



Regular Army tents are used, and four men occupy each one

Functions of Municipal Universities and of Municipal Junior Colleges

Few of the Universities Under Municipal Control Developed from Junior Colleges, but That Will be Logical Procedure in Future. Administration by City School Board Favorable to Complete Articulation of Courses. Activities of Municipal Universities are Varied and Complex. Two-year Completion Courses are an Outstanding Need

By GEORGE F. ZOOK
President Municipal University of Akron

ONE would naturally assume that a municipal university is a municipal junior college which has grown up into full maturity, and that there must inevitably be a great many points of similarity between the municipal junior college and the municipal university.

There is substantial truth in this statement. The Detroit Junior College, after a rapid growth in enrollment, recently became a full four-year college with the power to grant degrees. Doubtless there will be other examples of this character in the years to come. A municipal university draws its main financial support from the proceeds of public taxation in the same way that a municipal junior college does. It is entirely natural, too, that a high percentage of the students enrolled at both types of institutions should reside in the city from which each respectively gains its support. Finally, each is likely to be imbued with a common zeal for a great variety of public service.

These are important points of likeness between the municipal university and the municipal junior college, but it is nevertheless clear that the similarity is not so great as might be expected. There are indeed more significant points of differentiation between the two types of institutions, as so far developed, than there are points of similarity.

Some Cities Adopted Private Institutions

The fundamental reason for this situation is the fact that so far they have had little historical connection except, as I have said, in Detroit. The older municipal universities, in New York City, Louisville, Cincinnati, Akron, and Toledo, were founded on other bases—sometimes, as in Cincinnati and Akron, a privately controlled college which was given to a city in return for the promise of financial support. With the growth of municipal junior colleges it may be expected that in the future they will be the foundation on which municipal universities are most frequently based.

There are other obvious points of differentiation between municipal junior

colleges and municipal universities. The municipal junior college is usually located in close proximity to, if not in the same building with, a city high school. The students use the same library and occasionally the same laboratories and recitation rooms used by the high-school students. Naturally there is a tendency for the high school and the junior college to give each other the benefit of their respective facilities wherever it is convenient to do so.

Municipal universities, however, are invariably located on a separate campus with separate buildings, including libraries, laboratories, recitation rooms, and lecture halls. In general there are up to the present time infrequent instances of the mutual use of buildings and equipment. Finally, the municipal universities fix their own entrance requirements in substantially the usual way, whereas the municipal junior colleges more liberally adjust their requirements to that which the student has had during the previous four years.

Universities Ordinarily under Separate Control

The difference between the method of control or government of the municipal junior college and that of the municipal university is perhaps most significant. Ordinarily the municipal junior college is controlled by the governing board which has charge of the public schools, and the superintendent of schools is at once the administrative head of the public schools and of the junior college. The dean of the junior college stands in exactly the same relationship to the superintendent as the high-school principal does. Indeed, they are frequently one and the same person. The school board is elected for short terms by the people, and is often the subject of bitter political contests.

On the other hand, the governing boards of the municipal universities are usually entirely separate from the school board, and are appointed by the mayor of the city for longer periods of office. Thus far there have been few instances of political entanglement or difficulty in connection with appointive boards of the municipal universities.

The difference in the method of selection of the members of the two boards

should be distinctly to the advantage of the municipal university. It is well known that leading citizens frequently refuse to allow themselves to become candidates for office when they realize that they may be drawn into distasteful political publicity. On the other hand, few civic and business leaders refuse appointment to the governing board of a municipal university. Usually they see an excellent opportunity to help raise the standards of the civic and social life of the community through the numerous services offered by the university. Service on the governing board of a municipal university is therefore less spectacular and less in the public press, but it may for that reason attract a more capable and higher type of board. The very nature of the task naturally challenges the mayor of a city to base his appointments upon distinguished service rather than political expediency.

The complexity and the difference in the character of the work of a municipal university from that of the usual municipal junior college appear to offer substantial reasons for a separate board to govern the municipal university. At present few municipal junior colleges attempt more than the first two years of the usual academic work. Inasmuch as this is primarily an extension of the regular high-school program there are very few serious educational problems which may not be considered by the school administration as similar to the problems of secondary education.

Correlation Presents a Complex Problem

On the other hand, the first two years of college work is only a small part of the complex program of a municipal university. There is the problem of correlating the first two years of college with the major work of the latter two years, and with graduate work comprising at least the master's degree. There is the teachers college with its variety of curricula for the preparation of teachers in the elementary and secondary schools; engineering with its main branches of civil, electrical, and mechanical; and the home economics course of study as a preparation for home making; and certain specialized work. Occasionally also, where the

population justifies it, other technical and professional schools, as for example, law, medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy are included in the educational program of the municipal university. Last but by no means least is the evening session, which frequently serves as many different individuals as the regular day session. In other words the program of the municipal university is fully as complex as that of any type of higher institution bearing the name university. There is therefore as much reason for separating the administration of the municipal university from that of the public schools as there is with any other type of college or university.

Junior Colleges Enjoy Certain Advantages

Although it is obvious that the appointive board of a municipal university may have certain advantages over the elected school board governing a municipal junior college, the question may be raised whether the municipal junior college does not enjoy certain advantages over the municipal university in being under the same administration which governs the public schools, instead of the entirely separate administration of the municipal university. So long as the two boards and administration are entirely separate there is a tendency to preserve all the old cleavage separating the high school from the college; this may be eliminated more readily by the municipal junior college when administered by the board in charge of the public schools. The familiar topics of dispute such as entrance requirements, examinations, and certificates are not to be overlooked.

There may be no more correlation of work between the public-school system and a municipal university than there is between the public-school system and other types of higher educational institutions. Such a situation is decidedly unfortunate. In a municipal system of education whether it comprise a university or only a junior college it should be possible for students to pass easily from one stage to another with the least possible waste of the student's time and of the public's money. It seems to me that there has not been as much progress in this direction as we may legitimately expect of the municipal universities.

Technical Completion Courses are Needed

During the past two or three years emphasis has frequently been laid on the need for a variety of semiprofessional and technical courses of study in municipal junior colleges, which should be completion courses rather than the first two years of a four-year curriculum. Up to the present time, however, two-year curricula of this character have not made much progress in the program of the municipal junior college, partly, perhaps, because a number of persons identified

with this type of education vigorously oppose applying the name junior college to such work.

I refer particularly to the industrial and mechanical institutes, some of which have rendered excellent, though relatively unknown, service. This service is so valuable and the need for its rapid development is so great that there is every reason why it should become a recognized part of the regular educational system. I know of no fundamental reason why there should not be two types of junior college work operated side by side, namely the first two years of the four-year college curriculum and completion courses of one and two years, just as vocational work is now conducted alongside the general work in the high schools, and just as in the university technical and professional curricula are offered alongside the courses in the liberal arts.

Two-Year Curricula for Universities

Indeed, I regard the two-year technical curricula as so important that my main concern at present is whether the municipal universities, which so far like other types of higher institutions have been mainly concerned with four-year curricula, can develop successfully junior college completion courses, technical or semiprofessional, alongside the four-year courses of study. The history of such attempts seems to argue against the idea.

The long and relatively unsuccessful experience of the land-grant colleges in establishing and maintaining one and two year curricula in agriculture and mechanic arts may be adduced as evidence of the impracticability of the idea. But the non-technical character of farming until recent years, and the fact that most of the land-grant colleges are so located as not to be able to work in close correlation with the industries are important considerations which should modify adverse conclusions. For a number of reasons, I am convinced of the practicability of establishing junior college completion courses under the same administration and on the same campus with that of the present municipal universities. There are many examples of successful technical short courses in our land-grant colleges both in agriculture and mechanic

arts. All that is necessary to guarantee the success of these short technical courses is that there be competent and zealous men and women in charge of the work who believe thoroughly in and understand clearly the objectives of the courses as against the four-year curricula.

Successful Completion Courses in Operation

Moreover, one can not fail to recall numerous other examples of junior college completion courses in the universities which are generally conceded to be successful. I refer to the one year curriculum in library training, the two year curricula in pharmacy, teacher training and business education, and the three year curricula in pharmacy and nurse training, all of which have long been recognized parts of the work of the universities, private, State, and municipal. All these examples of successful junior college completion courses of study in the present program of the universities, as well as the logic of the situation, point plainly to the conclusion that the municipal university of the future will include in its program not only the usual four year curricula but also a variety of junior college completion curricula of technical and semiprofessional character. If it does not do so it will be losing one of its best opportunities to correlate its work with the public high schools on the one hand and with business and the industries on the other.

Both the municipal universities and the municipal junior colleges have been entirely too modest in their educational programs. A variety of technical completion courses of junior college grade should be organized and adjusted to the needs of business and industry. The whole field of evening instruction, both general and technical, is awaiting vigorous development. Much remains to be done in ascertaining the direction in which the native ability and interests of students run and in adjusting our educational programs to suit their respective needs. Finally, there is still great need among both the municipal universities and the junior colleges to correlate their courses of study more closely with the work of the high schools in order to eliminate all possible waste of time and money.

Platoon School Offers Possibility for Great Progress

SURELY we can not say that the platoon school is mechanized or over-supervised. It is anything but that. I see in it a possibility for great progress in education in the future. A differentiation of method is made possible by a greater and clearer emphasis upon the distinction between tool subjects and social or special subjects. In the former we should have a clear understanding of minimum essentials with use of standard tests to measure progress towards definite goals set up. The individual method could be used under proper technique. In the social or special subjects the socialized recitation comes in, and the project method finds its place. No tests should be given, and the cultural and appreciative side of education should here be emphasized.—J. T. Johnson, Department of Education, Chicago Normal College.

High School Athletics For The Benefit of The Individual

Inter-school Contests Now Organized for Winning Championships. Advantages to Participants are Many, but Changed Eligibility Rules Would Extend Benefits to Greater Numbers. Limit Competition of Adults Against Boys

By HENRY S. CURTIS

Director Hygiene and Physical Education for Missouri

INTER-SCHOOL contests have not thus far been carried on for the benefit of the individual but rather for the glory of the school, as an advertisement to get new students, or as an entertainment and spectacle.

The suggestions that I have to make will seem impractical and undesirable to those whose main interest is in winning victories. Probably there are not many, if any schools, ready to put this program into operation at present. Nevertheless a consideration of the principles involved can not be amiss.

It is generally admitted by the leaders in physical education that inter-school contests as now organized for the purpose of winning championships have comparatively little value in physical education. They over-train many, require too early specialization, often cause serious injuries and reach only a small percentage of the student body.

There are important advantages, however, in inter-school contests. They develop the highest degree of technical skill, and loyalty, cooperation, and good comradeship to a remarkable degree. Through the training rules they keep the members from dissipation and induce them to follow the laws of health. The practice in keeping your head under difficult circumstances and doing your best to the end of a winning or losing game is likely to be valuable throughout life. The athlete in going about to contests with other schools must learn how to meet people and make acquaintances. He has an opportunity for travel and to learn about other colleges and people. The intimate contact with the coach, if he happens to be such a man as "old man Stagg" of Chicago, may be one of the determining influences in life.

Rules Made for Four-Year Schools

Nearly all rules of eligibility are built on the supposition that the high school begins with the ninth grade. This type of high school still prevails in the country districts and is likely to continue. The high schools in the country and rural towns are usually small, with many students over-age. The number available for inter-school contests is often so limited that it is necessary to use nearly all the

available material. The rules of eligibility usually ignore the new division into junior and senior high schools and still allow high school students to compete for four years in football and basketball. There can be little doubt that this is wrong. The college does not permit competition for more than three years, and the high school should not permit it even though the ninth grade were in the same building and school. There is almost universal agreement among competent physical directors that students in junior high schools should not enter inter-school contests in football, basketball, and the longer races.

New Eligibility Rules Proposed

In the interest of the students and general training I would suggest the following rules of eligibility in high-school contests:

1. In rural high schools of fewer than 100 students, where the number is often barely sufficient to make up the necessary teams, that students be allowed to compete for 4 years, and until they are 21 years of age.
2. In high schools with a membership from 100 to 200, students be allowed to compete for 4 years, and until they are 20 years of age.
3. In high schools with a membership from 200 to 500, they be allowed to compete for 3 years, and until they are 19 years of age.

4. In high schools with a membership from 500 to 1,000, they be allowed to compete in any one event only 2 years, and until they are 19 years of age.

5. In high schools of more than 1,000, they be allowed to compete only 1 year in any one event, and only until they are 18 years of age.

The most serious injuries in football come from young boys being pitted against men of college age. The man who is 20 or 21 years old should be a sophomore or junior in college and not in high school. If these men are allowed to compete in high school, they crowd out the boys who are going through high school at a normal rate to graduate at 18. The boy who graduates at 18 is probably only 17 during his last football season.

By limiting the contestants in the big high schools to one or two years, too early specialization is prevented, the high school must train a much larger number of its students, and larger percentage of the boys may thus take part in the contests. The boy who is making normal progress has a normal chance to get on the school team and win his letter. In training a larger percentage of students for inter-school contests the teams on an average will probably be as good, or nearly so, as where a single group of boys make the team in football or basketball and hold their places for four years. Such a ruling would also put the small school more nearly on an equality with the large school.

At any rate, if we are thinking of justice to the normal boy and the interest of the student rather than a spectacle and a winning team, the rule for the city high school that the boy should not compete for more than three years nor after his nineteenth year is so obvious that its efficacy can not well be denied. The boy who is 19 during his last football season will probably be 20, and 2 years overage, at graduation.

British Scholars Studying American Education

An additional scholarship for educational research in America, available to teachers in Great Britain and Ireland, has been established in connection with the research work of the City of London Vacation Course. The new Bush scholarship has a value of £300, and the appointee, who may be a man or woman, will be sent out this fall or early in 1927. Appointment will be made by an advisory board consisting of the president of the course and other educational officials. Candidates must submit a statement of the research proposed and method to be pursued. The appointee will be required to send monthly reports of progress made,

and upon completion of the work present a thesis embodying results of the study.

Two scholars have already visited America under similar appointment by the City of London Vacation Course. Miss Mabel J. Wellock made a tour of the country in 1925 studying elementary education, and Mr. Arthur B. Neal is now investigating junior high schools and rural education.



To meet the demand for trained veterinarians in the Philippines and to protect livestock in the Islands from threatened epidemics, a scholarship of 35 pesos monthly as well as exemption from matriculation and laboratory fees is offered by the Philippine government to students in veterinary science.

SCHOOL LIFE

ISSUED MONTHLY, EXCEPT JULY AND AUGUST
BY THE DEPARTMENT OF THE
INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Editor - - - - - JAMES C. BOYKIN

Terms: Subscription, 50 cents per year, in advance; to foreign countries in which the mailing frank of the United States is not recognized, 75 cents. Remittance should be made to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

MAY, 1926

Are High Schools Entering the College Field?

OF MORE than 1,600 students who were graduated in 1925 from the senior high schools of the District of Columbia, 34 are continuing their studies in the schools from which they were graduated. These students can not hope to receive credit for such work if they apply for admission to a college, and it is evident that they remain in order to gain some knowledge or skill which they expect to be of immediate use to them. The school officials do not encourage post-graduate study. As one of them recently stated, "When we have graduated them we have done all we can for them; we can not keep them any longer."

This undoubtedly is indicative of the condition throughout the country. Colleges refuse credit for high-school work in excess of 15 or 16 units; high-school teachers can not spare the time that graduate students require; and many principals sturdily repel any suggestion of an attempt to do college work in high schools.

The result is seen in the figures reported in Bureau of Education Bulletin 1925, No. 40, Statistics of public high schools, 1923-24. Only 8,492 "postgraduate and special students" are reported in 14,827 high schools. Even if all these were post-graduate students, and clearly they are not, the proportion would be slightly more than one student to two schools. Postgraduate work in public high schools is, therefore, a negligible quantity.

Nevertheless, well-equipped high schools are not only capable of doing some college work, but they are actually doing it. At least they are doing much of the same work that the colleges are doing, which amounts to the same thing. The duplication of effort and the lack of coordination between the two classes of institutions is an old story. The extent of it was shown by Dr. Leonard V. Koos in his monumental work, "The Junior College." He found that 200 students actually repeated in college one-fifth of the work they had done in the high school, and that the loss of time which the duplication caused amounted to four-fifths of a high school year.

The effective remedy is not in unrecognized postgraduate high-school work, but in pursuing the logical development of public education by expanding the high schools into junior colleges in sufficient numbers to care for those who wish to attend them.

Doctor Zook's article in this number emphasizes the efficiency of the municipal junior college as a means of coordination, and he commends this normal development of city high schools. This course has been followed in about 60 places, and the tendency is steadily to increase the number.

The greatest hindrance to the increase may be illustrated by citing Washington again as a typical example. A bill was introduced in the Congress to establish a municipal junior college, but the board of education reported adversely upon it because the available funds are not sufficient, in justice to existing schools.

The arguments for the junior college are good, and it will undoubtedly come when the necessary money is to be had.



Another Cycle in Adult Education

ADULT EDUCATION has steadily grown in relative importance since the war, and it has become one of the major topics in educational discussion. The inception and the steps in the progress of the new movement are well known.

Adult education is not new in America. Like physical training and industrial education, it has progressed in cycles. The present movement is so far not more extensive than its predecessors, but it appears already to be of more substantial quality.

One of the most remarkable phenomena in American education was the prevalence of "lyceums," the first important movement for adult education, which marked the middle half of the nineteenth century. This movement originated in Massachusetts, but it spread rapidly over the country. In cities and villages of every section associations were organized which met regularly, indulged in debates, heard lectures, and enjoyed social intercourse. At one time no less than 12,000 communities were thus organized. Libraries and museums were commonly maintained by the lyceums, and many "lyceum bureaus" did a flourishing business in supplying lecturers. Such was the vogue of some of the popular speakers that a single address was delivered 2,000 times, it is said.

The Chautauqua movement of the last quarter of the century was another extensive effort for adult education, and it

spread as the lyceums waned. An educational camp meeting in western New York was the beginning of this movement, and before many years had passed practically every State had at least one "annual assembly." The means by which Chautauqua attained its widest influence, however, was "Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle," branches of which were organized in thousands of communities. Reading courses were prescribed, and "seals" were granted by the parent Chautauqua for the completion of those courses. The groups of members met regularly for conference and discussion, usually under competent leadership. Lecturers were supplied to groups and assemblies by bureaus whose methods were similar to those of the lyceum bureaus.

With influence not so widespread but equally significant as recognition of the importance of adult education were the mechanics institutes which sprang up in many American cities, beginning with the second quarter of the nineteenth century. The most famous of these were Franklin Institute, of Philadelphia; Maryland Institute, of Baltimore; Ohio Mechanics Institute, of Cincinnati; General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen, of New York; Spring Garden Institute, of Philadelphia; and Cooper Union, of New York. All of them declared their purpose to promote and disseminate literary and scientific knowledge. They offered technical instruction for apprentices, night schools for men and boys, and lecture courses; all maintained libraries. With the growth of public school systems many of the direct educational activities of institutions of this class were discontinued.

The lyceums, Chautauqua, and the mechanics' institutes were the outstanding manifestations in the past century of the desire which abides in Americans for intellectual growth throughout life. The same desire is manifested in this day in unparalleled patronage of summer schools, university extension classes, correspondence courses, evening courses, reading courses, and lecture courses in great variety. A very considerable proportion of the adult population thus employ a large part of the time not occupied by vocations essential to living. The part which the libraries of the country play in the movement is especially noteworthy.

"Adult education" in pedagogical terminology is ordinarily restricted to organized effort with a definite purpose and directed by an established educational agency. This limitation is convenient for those who administer the agencies for systematic study; it does not ignore the mental development that comes without purposeful effort, but it assumes that as a common possession of all Americans.

Our people are the greatest newspaper readers and the greatest travelers on earth.

No other nation can show such circulation of periodicals, such mileage of railroads, and such numbers of automobiles. No agencies other than those for formal instruction are so effective as these in mental growth. They take the individual out of his narrow environment and make of him a citizen of the world. Add the similar influence of the radio, the theater, including the movies, and of the countless societies and fraternities which claim in their membership nearly every normal American, and one is not far from the explanation of that alertness, self-confidence, and individual initiative which characterize our countrymen wherever they may be.

Second Campaign for Physically Fit Children

Encouraged by the results of the summer campaign of 1925 to send children to the first grade of school 100% free from remediable physical defects, the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, is promoting a second nation-wide summer campaign for the same purpose in cooperation with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. This movement has the endorsement of the American Medical Association, the American Child Health Association, and of many other agencies working for the welfare of children. The Bureau of Education is calling upon State Superintendents of Public Instruction, and city and county superintendents of schools for their cooperation.

Five hundred parent-teacher associations in as many school districts have already applied for registration as participants in advance of the opening of the 1926 campaign.

Material for use in the campaign has been prepared with the cooperation and approval of the American Medical Association and other medical and educational authorities. This material includes a broadside prepared by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the honor roll for 1925, reports of how the campaign of 1925 was carried out in several States, further campaign requirements, a physical examination form, height-age-weight tables, report cards, etc. All of these helps were issued by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and will be supplied free upon application by the Campaign Director, 5517 Germantown Avenue, Philadelphia, Pa.

The first health examination should be held during May; defects should be corrected during June, July, and August, and the second health examination should be held during September. This means that if parent-teacher associations are to take part, parents, teachers, school of-

ficials, doctors, and nurses must lose no time in obtaining the material and in registering for the campaign. May Day has been chosen as opening day for the campaign.

To Analyze and Interpret Curriculum Materials

The Commissioner of Education of the United States has formed a committee on materials of instruction. It is announced by the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, that the following persons have accepted appointment on this committee:

Miss Mary McSkimmon, president, National Education Association; Dr. W. B. Owen, president of the Chicago Normal College and past president of the National Education Association; Dr. Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools of Cincinnati and president of the department of superintendence of the National Education Association; S. D. Shankland, executive secretary, department of superintendence; Hon. J. C. Wright, director, Federal Board for Vocational Education; Hon. A. B. Meredith, commissioner of education of Connecticut; Matthew Woll, American Federation of Labor; A. W. Whitney, National Safety Council; Dr. Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago; Dr. C. R. Mann, director, American Council on Education; Dr. George A. Works, professor of rural education, Cornell University; Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Calif.; and John J. Tigert, Commissioner of Education of the United States.

The purpose of this committee is to collect, analyze and interpret materials which may be used by those who are engaged in curriculum study and curriculum reorganization.

The first meeting of the committee will be held in Washington on May 7.

Indian School Service Requires More Teachers

Teachers of elementary grades and of junior and senior high schools are required by United States Indian school service. Beginning salaries are \$1,200, \$1,440, and \$1,560, respectively. Principals at salaries from \$1,500 to \$2,400 may be appointed from the same examinations. Furnished quarters, heat, and light are allowed to appointees free of cost. Full information may be obtained from the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated.

Biennial survey of education, 1920-1922. Statistics. (Bulletin, 1924, No. 14.) \$1.

Statistics of land-grant colleges, 1923. W. J. Greenleaf. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 19.) 10 cents.

Statistics of land-grant colleges, 1924. W. J. Greenleaf. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 26.) 10 cents.

Statistics of teachers' colleges and normal schools. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 28.) 10 cents.

Education pays the State. M. A. Foster. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 33.) 5 cents.

Review of educational legislation, 1923 and 1924. W. R. Hood. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 35.) 5 cents.

Industrial education. M. M. Proffitt. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 37.) 5 cents.

Art education in the United States. R. B. Farnum. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 38.) 5 cents.

Statistics of public high schools. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 40.) 5 cents.

Statistics of State school systems, 1922-1924. (Bulletin, 1925, No. 42.) 10 cents.

Educational directory, 1926. (Bulletin, 1926, No. 1.) 20 cents.

Bibliography of secondary education research, 1920-1925. E. E. Windes and W. J. Greenleaf. (Bulletin, 1926, No. 2.) 15 cents.

Education in the Irish Free State. (Foreign Education Leaflet, No. 1.) 5 cents.

Policies and curricula of schools of education in State Universities. J. B. Edmonson and A. H. Webster. (Higher Education Circular, No. 30.) 5 cents.

Home economics instruction in certain higher institutions. Emeline S. Whitcomb. (Home Economics Circular, No. 20.) 5 cents.

Publications of the United States Bureau of Education of special interest to high school teachers.

Salaries of rural teachers and length of school term. Alex Summers. (Rural School Leaflet, No. 39.) 5 cents.

A rural curriculum: An outstanding need in rural schools. Fannie W. Dunn. (Rural School Leaflet, No. 40.) 5 cents.

Training of dental hygienists. J. F. Rogers. (School Health Studies, No. 9.) 5 cents.

Pupils Should Be in Contact With Manifestations of Art

Make that Contact Definite by Technical Exercises, and Obtain Reaction in Conscious Habit. Basis of Wilmington Art Course is Collection of Art Objects to be Taken into Schools. Historic Ornament is Emphasized

By ALBERT W. BARKER
Director of Art Education, Wilmington (Del.) Public Schools

ELEMENTARY ART in the public schools of Wilmington is planned to give pupils an art experience that will remain a memorable part of their schooling. To do this under ordinary school conditions with the time allotment of one hour a week has called for strict economy of effort.

Our chief aim is to bring the child into contact with superior works of fine and applied art, to make this contact definite by means of technical exercises, and to obtain a genuine reaction in conscious habit of choice and comparison. We are not teaching theory; we are not teaching a narrow and limited technical facility for vocational ends; we are not teaching art as a means of self-expression. We are trying to enlarge the child's experience among the better things and better standards of things. In enlarging and enriching his experience we are enlarging the scope and power of the child to the point where self-expression may follow; and it will then be worth expression. We believe in leading the child to experiences of beauty and worth in art before expecting him to produce a worthy art of its own.

Pictures and Sculpture not most Important

Therefore, the art work has not been planned as a kind of play, nor primarily as a means of self-expression, nor yet for the development of the comparatively rare gift of picture making. It is not even planned to give technical expertness except as a by-product. We want the pupils to draw and design beautiful things, but also we want them to see and know about more things and better things than they can make in a school course. We want them to come in contact with works which embody professional standards of design and workmanship. This refers partly to pictures and sculpture and other works of fine or unapplied art, but it refers much more to the many other manifestations of art which occupy a larger place in our lives than pictures do. Of necessity everyone buys and uses furniture and clothing, lives in a house and can have a garden, if it is only a window box. It takes art to make these better, and it takes art experience to recognize and enjoy the better things when made.

The technical part of the program is planned to cause the child to look in-

tently; it is a modified form of such a course in a professional school; we do no poor work or foolish work with the idea that it is child-like. Our drawing is real drawing, our lettering is real lettering, our color is real color from the first grade up.

The physical instrument of a logical course of this sort must be a museum. This applies not only to the high-school course and those of the upper grades, but equally to those of earlier. At no age is the school child too young to profit by the associations and contacts of a great collection of beautiful things.

No existing museum exactly fits our needs.

City Museums are not Sufficient

No matter how small the city in which it stands, it is manifestly impossible for a museum to accommodate all the school children, even if a system of rotation could be devised and the problem of transportation satisfactorily and economically solved. At best, in the large cities (no others have such museums) the pupils visit the museum two or three times in the year and then in some haste check up the items of a prescribed schedule. Under existing conditions, nothing better seems possible.

It is, however, possible that most of the advantages of the large museum can be

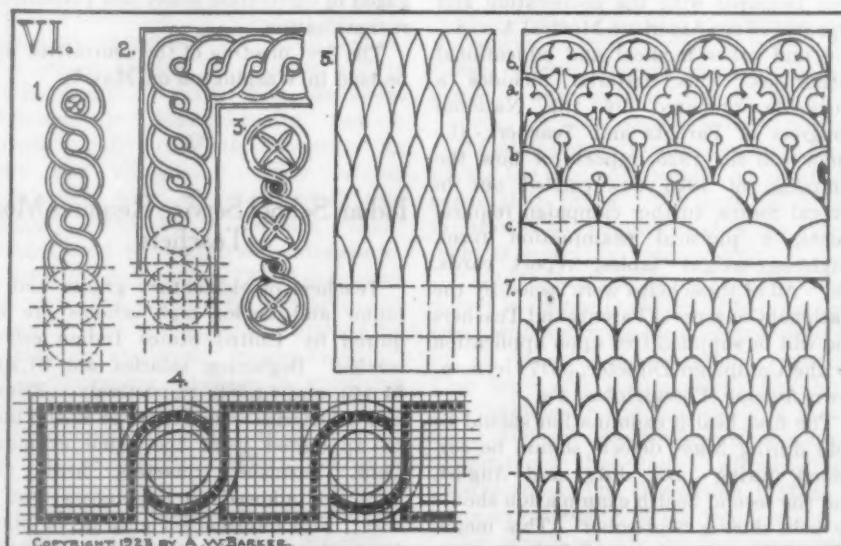
carried into the schools themselves and can be made the basis of the whole course in art, and that at an expense within the reach of any modern school system. To bring the right kinds of works of fine and applied art before the child during every art lesson we have begun a new kind of museum in Wilmington and already have installed two units. When complete there will be a unit or "alcove" for each school not permanently installed, but passing to each school in turn for one semester in each.

Each of these groups of museum material will illustrate (1) a technique or type of product, for example, pottery, rugs, etc.; or (2) a period, for example, colonial American; or (3) a characteristic national art, for example, Japanese art.

Each of these groups of museum material will consist of (a) a few authentic and characteristic examples; (b) numerous photographs, color prints or casts of suitable size for classroom display; (c) numerous small cuts, photographs, etc., mounted on standard 4 by 6 inch catalogue cards, for desk use.

Brings Material Beyond Child's Usual Experience

Take, for example, a group to represent Japanese art: A good collection of modern pottery, one or two pieces of metal work, a dozen good prints, examples of lacquer, of textiles and papers, color prints from a book on Japan, examples of architecture, etc., from copies of the Geographic Magazine, Asia Magazine, and other periodicals and similar material, even from catalogues, particularly sales catalogues of collections, museum catalogues, etc. Plates illustrating costume, history or customs and technical processes would be included. Such a museum will bring before the pupils groups of material far beyond the usual experience of the average child.



Historic ornament motives are printed on cards

Two such units, one representing the art of Japan and the other modern table china, have already been assembled and installed. Several other units are planned and will be arranged as soon as practical conditions warrant. In the meantime the program of simple graded technical exercises which now has been in operation for several years is continued as hitherto. The museum material furnishes objects for drawing, supplies ornamental motives and types of design, and it affords the background and the elements for adaptations and recombinations in what is called original design. Predominant as is the place of art appreciation (as distinguished from art creation) in the lives of all but artists and designers, it would not serve our purpose to displace these elementary technical exercises and to do away with the opportunity for the pupil to handle color and draw for form and proportion. These are the only sure means to secure the attention of the class to the works that are before them. Without them the quality of appreciation would degenerate at once into passive acceptance, guess-work, boredom, and affectation.

Pencil and Water-Color Easiest Mediums

These technical exercises reflect the general purpose of the course. Throughout their work from the first grade to the eighth, the pupils work in pencil and water-color, the easiest mediums in which to study, and those of most general use.

The subjects and the order of their presentation are shown in the following table. They are the same in all grades below the high school. We should teach more subjects—modeling, for example—but we find the time allotment too short.

Lettering, and the composition of lettering, is one of our most valuable studies.

As drawing, as design, and as an obviously useful form of art it appeals to all. At first the children learn the alphabet and to spell their own names in large capitals of the simplest skeleton form, using pencil and brush. By the time they enter the fifth grade they are using a modified Serlio alphabet with thick and thin elements, serifs, etc. This alphabet has been redrawn, a zinc plate made and printed on standard 4 by 6 inch cards. At no time is the crude block letter tolerated. The use of the ruler, except for guide lines, is taboo.

Order of Subjects—Second Term

Weeks

1, 2, 3.....	Lettering.
4, 5, 6.....	Color exercises.
7, 8.....	Drawing of objects in pencil.
9, 10.....	Design elements.
11, 12, 13, 14.	Design problem.
15, 16.....	Drawing of objects in pencil.
17.....	Memory drawing.
18, 19.....	Drawing in color (flowers or still life).

In color the work begins with the identification of color, the comparison and classification of tints and mixtures (textile samples, etc.) as to redness, yellowness, etc., and with elementary brush exercises. It leads in the upper grades to exercises in proposing new schemes for existing patterns (cretonnes, etc.). The aim is to train the child to satisfy his own increasingly refined color sense by exercising his faculty on problems of obvious meaning and applicability.

Theory of color or of design is held good only so far as it makes the child more definitely conscious of these elements in the work of art that is before him. Theory may do this by aiding in classification or by supplying the nomenclature. On the other hand any theory that is proposed with the aim of enabling the pupil to produce satisfactory patterns or proportions or pleasing color by rule and not by

developing his own sense of color or design is educationally vicious, however true it may be as a theory. Our interest lies in the child and its life experience, not in the result on paper.

The remaining subjects are treated exactly as they are treated in the best professional schools, due allowance being made for the extreme simplicity of subject and handling called for by the immaturity of the pupils.

Cards of Historic Ornament Motives

In this, our course does not differ greatly from some of the serious methods in use elsewhere. One further detail alone is perhaps worth mention. Until the museum plan can be extended to all the schools in the system (and this can not well be done except where there is a special art room and a special art teacher) we have found it useful to have small plates of historic ornament motives printed on cards of the standard 4 by 6 inch size. On these cards there is no attempt to classify the motives according to style; the historic interest should come later; easy motives of various styles are on the cards for the earlier grades, harder ones on those for the older pupils. In the lower grades squared paper is used and color schemes are derived from textile samples and color prints. No two pupils need study the same patterns; a few units of each of various motives are drawn by each pupil; color schemes are exceedingly varied and the work of any class shows work of greatest variety and freshness of treatment. All these ornamental motives have a long history of development and abundant present use, and the child who has become familiar with them and adapted some of them to his own purposes will have tangible proof that rhythm and harmony, essential indeed, are not the whole essential of good ornament.

When a child has been led through such a course as is here outlined he has been made conscious of the availability of works of superior design and workmanship, and has learned that a museum need not mean a collection of rare and exotic works representing other epochs and other civilizations, but in his own experience it has meant a collection of high grade products gathered from the open markets of the world. He is then prepared to bring into his own home or into his own business these better things, and as a business man to think of quality production as one of the high aims of human industry.



Czechoslovakia maintained in December, 1924, 1,416 infant schools, 1,047 kindergartens, 366 nursery schools, and 58 crèches. These schools were attended by 89,282 children.—Emanuel V. Lippert.



Lettering and the composition of lettering is a valuable study

Teachers and Principals are Factors in Educational Research

Speculation Based Upon Unproved Data Not Sufficient Basis for Educational Reforms. Means of Finding Facts and Measuring Results Essential to True Progress. Research Conducted in Classroom Promises Large Returns

ARTHUR J. JONES
Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania

ONE of the most persistent criticisms of education as a profession is that it is based largely on speculative philosophy; it is a matter of opinion, of trial and error, of subjective judgment, where one man's opinion is as good as another's. Consequently, the business man, the parent, or the man on the street often feels that his opinion on the schools is as good as that of anyone else. The teacher, the principal, and the superintendent are often looked upon as theorists, with little, if any, understanding of life as it really is.

This stage in the development of education is rapidly passing. The fact that it is passing is due largely to the widespread interest in research into educational problems of all kinds. Research aims to discover truth; it is not satisfied with a priori reasoning, nor subjective judgments, nor mere speculation based upon insecure and unproved data. Educators everywhere are looking for facts, for truths upon which to base educational reforms. They want to know whether the new method actually brings better results, not what some people think about it. They want to find whether the sixty-minute supervised study period actually improves the quality and quantity of the pupils' achievement as compared with the old forty-five minute recitation period.

Must Have Means of Knowing Results

True progress can come only when we devise ways and means of finding facts and measuring results. This is especially true of education because it is so complex and the results are so often delayed. We have for so long merely "carried on" and followed in the footsteps of those who have gone before that we have been too content to take it for granted that the objectives we set up are actually accomplished when in reality we are completely in the dark and have no means of knowing what the results are.

This attitude of mind that relies upon tradition and authority, combined with the complexity of the problem, has served to delay the scientific search for truth in education. Although we have not progressed very far into the field of real

scientific research in education at least two things have been accomplished: (1) The importance of the discovery of truth has been demonstrated; and (2) methods of finding the truth have been partially developed.

Research Formerly Confined to Laboratory

Up to the present time educational research, in common with other forms of truth finding, has been confined largely to the laboratory, to places where data could be assembled, dissected, and analyzed apart from the schoolroom, and certain conclusions reached that were sent back to the schoolroom for use. In the psychological laboratory various experiments have been made to find what method of memorizing is the most effective. The results showed that the method of memorizing a selection as a whole was much more effective than the old one of learning it in parts.

The expert comes to the school and obtains certain facts about attendance, costs, methods of instruction, teachers, etc. He takes these to his workroom, his laboratory, analyzes them and makes his recommendations for improvements. This will always remain a very important part of the machinery of research in education. Certain problems can best be investigated in a place apart, where conditions can be absolutely controlled. Every school system should have such an agency. The rapid development of Bureaus of Educational Research in our large cities shows that the importance of this agency is now recognized.

Certain Investigations Impossible in Laboratory

But helpful and indispensable as this is, by its very isolation it can not carry on certain types of investigation nor reach valid conclusions regarding schoolroom practices. Of necessity these laboratory experiments are performed on selected groups, often of adults, and use material unlike that employed in the classroom in which the particular element under investigation is to be found. Data taken from the school by the expert are analyzed out of relation to conditions of the actual classroom.

Much research can be carried on only in the classroom where the process of education is actually taking place, where

the conditions are normal, and the agencies concerned are functioning naturally. In many ways it is this kind of research that promises the largest returns. For example, which of these two methods is more effective in reducing tardiness, keeping those who are tardy in after school or making the first period in the morning very attractive? Are the results in actual achievement greater when some time is given to teaching pupils how to study than when they are thrown on their own resources? Do pupils gain appreciably more from five periods a week than from four if the same content and methods are used and other things are equal?

Must Assume Share of Responsibility

The teacher and the principal, then, become very important factors in educational research. In the near future, they must assume their proper share of this responsibility.

There are many obstacles in the way of research on the part of the teacher and the principal. One of these is lack of time and energy for the work. The teaching load carried by teachers is often so great as to preclude any possibility of time for research. Principals and boards of education are still too often obsessed by the traditional factory point of view. The teaching load is stated in terms of the number of recitations held per day or per week. "Vacant periods" are so much lost time—so far as the school is concerned. The principal is often so loaded up with petty duties that could be performed as well and often better by a secretary, that he has no time for finding the truth about the school.

Teachers do not Know the Technique

Probably the greatest deterrent to research in the school is the fact that principals and teachers do not know how to do it. Many teachers are eager to try out some plan, to investigate some phase of school work, but they do not know how to begin—they have no conception of the difficulties involved, nor of the conditions that must be established in order to make sure that the data are accurate and the conclusions valid. Many otherwise splendid investigations made by teachers and principals are made valueless because conditions essential to research are disregarded. Unfortunately, these often find their way into reputable educational journals and teachers are often confused or led astray by conclusions or recommendations based upon them.

These in brief are some considerations which prompted the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education to undertake the preparation of a bulletin

outlining methods of research and making practical suggestions for procedure to high school principals and teachers. A preliminary draft of this bulletin prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of the writer has been completed and is in process of revision with a view to publication as a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education. The committee hopes that this bulletin will be of real service not only to high school teachers and principals but to educational research in all its phases.



How One Delaware County is Teaching Thrift

We believe that one of the chief purposes of education is to teach good habits, and we think that thrift is a desirable habit which the schools should foster.

In November, 1925, we sent a questionnaire to every bank in Sussex County asking the following questions: (1) What is the smallest sum that you will accept for an initial deposit? (2) What is the smallest sum that you will accept as a deposit after an account has been opened? (3) Do you have small banks which you loan to children? (4) Do you have any thrift advertising material? (5) Can you, if requested, furnish thrift speakers for the schools?

With this questionnaire we sent a brief letter explaining our plan to encourage school children to save money. A similar letter was sent to each teacher.

After the answers were received from the banks we tabulated them and sent a circular letter to every teacher in the county telling her to what extent the banks in her vicinity would cooperate with us in our thrift education. We suggested to the teacher that she put the names of children opening bank accounts on the bulletin board. Teachers were told that we would ask for reports from time to time on the progress they were making in our thrift campaign. It was also suggested that teachers would volunteer to bring children's savings to the village banks when they came to town if it was inconvenient for the children to come.

We have just received a report from a one-room rural school which is 7 miles from the nearest railroad station. In October this school had an enrollment of 17, scattered through the 8 grades. The enrollment is now 21.

The children have \$700 in the savings account bank in the town 7 miles away. Their parents are farmers of moderate means, and the children earned nearly all the money. We think this is a good record for a small rural school.—Albert Early, Rural Supervisor, Georgetown, Del.

Evening Institutes for the Diffusion of Culture

Curriculum Embraces Ancient and Modern Literature, Languages, Art, Philosophy, Economics. Each Institute under a Full-Time Head. Classes Meet in Secondary Schools. Students Must be More than 18 Years Old

By a LONDON CORRESPONDENT

"LITERARY INSTITUTES" under the direction of the Education Officer of the London County Council have become an agency for the diffusion of culture whose worth is beyond estimate.

There are 12 literary institutes now in London, the largest being the City Literary Institute with nearly 2,000 students. Each is under a full-time head. These institutes, which began in 1919, are concerned with the spread of cultural knowledge—"the humanities"—as distinct from the vocational knowledge taught in technical schools. The curriculum is largely decided by the wishes of the student; it embraces almost all branches of ancient and modern literature, elocution, the drama, modern languages, the appreciation of art, architecture and music, history, philosophy, aesthetics, artistic hobbies, and the social, political, and economic sciences. The institutes are attended by more than 7,000 men and women, grouped in about 350 courses of study. Library schemes have been inaugurated and books are obtained in single

volumes or sets from the County Hall, the borough libraries, and from the Central Library for Students. The institutes have their headquarters as a rule in local secondary schools; the tuition fee for the year is 6 shillings for the first subject and 3 shillings for each additional subject. No one under 18 years of age is admitted.

"It is impossible" say the writers of a booklet recently issued by the education officer, "to estimate the social influences which the institutes are already exerting. But it is clear that with the spread of adult education profound changes will be wrought in the structure of individual, family, municipal, and national life. That these will be in the direction of greater social happiness can not be questioned."

"The institutes have grown to their present size," it is said, "by the quiet influence which each student exercises on his or her circle of friends. Husbands bring their wives; sons and daughters sometimes persuade their parents to enroll. Every student becomes inevitably a missionary of popular culture."

New York Schools Restoring Denuded Forests

Reforestation is becoming a popular school project in New York State. Two thousand trees have been planted each year for the past three years by pupils of the Cold Brook School, and the work will be continued this year. A good beginning has been made upon the school forest of Watson, Lewis County, which will ultimately cover 98 acres; trees are planted at the rate of 10,000 a year. Pupils of the Spencerport High School are planning to reforest 2½ acres of a 12-acre tract. A school forest has been started by the agricultural department of Walton High School. A plot of 5½ acres was purchased last year on Pine Hill, covered a century ago with a virgin white-pine forest. About a third of the plot has already been set out, and the remainder will be reforested during the next two or three years in order to train students in practical forestry.

This work is promoted by the State Conservation Commission, which supplies young forest trees free for planting on publicly owned land and at a nominal

price to individuals. The Arbor Day number of Bulletin to the Schools, issued by the University of the State of New York, was largely devoted to descriptions of such efforts.



New Equalization Laws in Two States

Legislation to promote equality of educational opportunity in every part of the State has been enacted recently in Georgia and in Tennessee. Georgia will provide a fund to supplement county school funds in counties not able to support adequate schools by a five-mill local, or county, tax. This is in addition to the regular State school appropriation which is apportioned on school enrollment to the several counties of the State.

Fifty-three counties in Tennessee levied as much as 50 cents on the hundred dollars for elementary schools in order to share in the State equalization fund, so that their school term may be 8 months. Seventy-three counties out of the 95 will have the advantage of an eight-month school term.

Home Economics in the High-School Health Program

Rich Opportunities to Teachers of Home Economics in Developing Fine Type of Homemakers. Special Emphasis in Correlation with Four Departments. Personal Example of Teacher a Potent Influence

By CAROL M. DAVIS
Teacher of Home Economics, Highland Park (Mich.) High School

EVERY GIRL in the Highland Park High School is reached through the home economics department. The course is required in the seventh, ninth, and eleventh grades, and health instruction is given in all of them.

As a background for the health instruction, the normal girl is held as the model. Usually the normal girls in the class are lined up, and the best example of health in every respect is chosen by the pupils. The proper mental attitude must be incorporated in the minds of the underweight and overweight girls so that the positive view of health may be upheld. A note of caution is sometimes necessary in order that the girl may understand the scientific reasons for mak-

ing the effort to be healthy and well. Another precaution in mental attitude is to assure these girls that they are not stigmatized or labeled as different from the other girls, but that the school is doing everything possible to help every girl to be the finest example of health.

In the home economics department there are weight scales which are moved each week to each of the three kitchens, so that each kitchen has the scales for at least one week—the same week every month. Each girl is given a card which is filled by her and returned to the teacher, who keeps them on file in her desk. The card has a place for name, date, height, actual weight, normal weight, difference, loss and gain, and remarks. On the back

of the card each girl makes an entry of the minimum healthy weight for herself. For example, if her normal weight should be 120 pounds, 10 per cent would be 12 pounds; 12 pounds subtracted from 120 pounds leaves 108 pounds. The girl, then, could weigh from 108 pounds to 120 pounds and still be within the range of health.

Some physicians use a 7 per cent standard; but, of course, good judgment must be exercised by the nurse or physician. If a girl has three or four pounds difference in weight, then she sees that she is still of normal weight. Harm may be wrought by over-emphasizing weight as a standard, for health should be the standard; but through the weighing an interest in health is awakened first, just as through the mechanical process of cooking an interest in other things is aroused. The use of the weight card by the girl herself is just another means of awakening her interest.

A Workable Chart is Available

When the day of weighing comes the period can be spent in discussions on health. Miss De Planter, of the Philadelphia Child Health Society, has prepared an interesting and workable chart



Senior girls practice child care in the nursery school

applicable to girls in the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. It shows the various phases which include good nutrition and health.

With this incentive, then, the individual cases become separate problems and the home economics teacher can be

college, as well as teachers, may rest here twice a day—mid-morning and mid-afternoon. A light lunch of milk and crackers precedes the rest period. They have the lunch in a room adjoining, which is lighted by a skylight and the windows from the physical-training department.



Light lunch precedes the rest period

of real personal service not only in watching over the physical growth of these girls at a very critical period in their lives but in instilling in them an inspiration to make real efforts for gain in weight, correct eating habits, or in the maintenance of already perfect health.

There are four departments with which the home economics department in Highland Park make special emphasis in correlation:

Record made of Underweight Pupils

First, the nurses department.—The names of the girls who are 10 per cent or more underweight or any girls who the teacher thinks need attention for poor physique, poor posture, defective vision, etc., are given to the nurse. Previously, at the beginning of the semester, all seventh-grade children are weighed and measured by the nurses. Those who are 10 per cent or more underweight are recommended for our "nutrition room." Those who need care and can not be accommodated in the nutrition room are asked to report to the nutrition teacher once a month for advice.

Second, the nutrition room.—This room is ideally located on the third floor with an eastern and southern exposure. Those two sides are entirely of glass windows which can be adjusted for all sorts of weather or to allow the sun to come in directly upon the children. In this room are enough cots to accommodate more than 100 children in a day. No classes are held here. Girls and boys of all ages, from seventh grade up through junior

In order to get time in the schedule for these two periods, physical-training class is dropped but credit given. If the girl has home economics class at the time she should go to "nutrition" she is excused from one of those periods—home economics has two 45-minute periods. The girl does lose something in practical work, but she is actually putting into practice health habits which are lasting and probably more important than what she is missing. The other members of the class feel, too, that the department considers the practice of these habits very important.

Credit is given in home economics with an additional grade in "nutrition." This is put on the report cards with other subjects. The mark in nutrition indicates how much effort has been made to rest well and to learn to like the foods which are desirable. The noon meal is supervised by the lunch-room director, who is trained in home economics. She gives a menu at a special price of 25 cents, and this allows for 2 or 3 choices. Foods which promote growth and tend toward bone and tooth development are emphasized by the lunch-room director and in home economics classes. Sometimes the nutrition teacher (an elementary classroom teacher formerly) has been able to interest some of them to take cod-liver oil regularly at home.

Parents' Consent Necessary to Entrance

Those in the nutrition room are weighed regularly once a month and cards with the plotted curves are kept by the nutrition teacher. The students enter only with the consent of their parents. A printed letter is sent to the parents to be signed if consent is given. Under this plan, the students go to the regular classes with their classmates and are able to keep up the same standard of work without the stigma of ostracism.

Very seldom is anyone with physical defects allowed to attend. The heart cases, of course, are recommended and occasionally a student is accepted with some defect if he promises to have it corrected within a short time—at vacation time perhaps—and in the meantime can keep up his work. Often, some one just recovering from an illness is recommended and is able to renew his health much more quickly than otherwise. The gains have been most gratifying; only one or two last semester failed to gain.



Windows of the rest room may be adjusted for any weather

If the nutrition room is completely filled, or if a girl's schedule has already been arranged so that she can not go to nutrition room at the proper hours, the home-economics teacher can aid greatly in suggesting a rest period at home after school together with a proper lunch and regular sleeping hours. Many girls have gained up to normal weight in this way without entering nutrition room. One girl already much underweight had a 45-minute lunch period. It was not a long enough time for her to be able to eat and relax after the meal. So the home-economics teacher excused her from one period of class work which came at noon, providing she would rest afterwards. She gained 5 pounds the first month.

Teacher Calls Attention to Defects

Another example of two girls in the seventh grade who had physical defects might be cited. One girl had badly infected tonsils, and the other, deviated septum. Both stayed in class during the spring semester with no apparent interest in having these defects removed. The home-economics teacher patiently urged, until finally in the summer the girl who had diseased tonsils had them removed and gained 19 pounds, coming up to normal weight by fall, in spite of the increase in height which also increased her normal weight. The second girl had the operation on her nose in the following September and has gained up to normal weight, improving remarkably in speech as well as in general physical appearance. This interest was created by the home-economics teacher. Sometimes a girl goes personally to the nutrition teacher and makes all the arrangements without suggestion from anyone.

Benefit from Sight-Conservation Room

Third, sight-conservation room.—This is a study room for students with defective vision. The evident results are shown in—

(1) Fewer absences.—One girl was absent 23 days 1 semester, an average of 1 or 2 days each week. One eye was totally blind and great strain was upon the other, even with glasses. The next semester, after attending the room, she was out six days altogether, and part of that period was due to a cold rather than from headaches or any other illness that might arise from eyestrain.

(2) Improved general health.—One of these students is in a home-economics class and is excused from one period to go to "nutrition" and then attends the sight-conservation room. The relief from headaches and eye strain, together with treatments given by an eye specialist, as well as the aid given by the nutrition room, have all tended to improve her general health and behavior. She has gained

weight and is a much happier child as she reflects the interest shown her by the various departments.

(3) Improved scholarship.—A marked improvement in grades was shown by a girl who has been getting for a year very low grades; she jumped in one month to the highest grade in all subjects.

Three methods of studying are used in this room: (1) Typewriting, which relieves eyestrain by the use of a big chart. Touch system is taught, so that each student does not look continually at the printing. (2) Copying lessons in large type. (3) Reading lessons to the students.

Nursery School in a Separate Building

Fourth, the nursery school.—The nursery school is a separate residence near the school and conducted by Miss Alice Wallin, a home economics teacher, who is also supervisor of elementary home economics and is assisted by two teachers from the Merrill-Palmer School, in Detroit.

The senior girls are given a course in child care through observation of children of preschool age. The seniors spend a whole day twice a month in the nursery school so that the entire day's program can be studied.

The ninth grade girls make observation visits at one time during the semester work when diets of children are studied. A group of four or five girls visit for one period during the day to see at least one activity. Another group visits at another period. Some are excused from home economics class to do this and others go during their vacant periods. At the next lesson a discussion in home economics class follows, at which time the reports of the visits are given. All the activities of the little children and the reactions of the girls are brought together. They comment upon the regularity of meals, the food value of the meals, the play activities, exercise, fresh air, rest, mental attitudes, etc.

Constant Association Promotes Health Habits

By observing the practice of health habits by little children, the older girls see the necessity of those same habits to themselves and the importance of starting at an early age. They are reminded, also, of little brothers and sisters at home, who perhaps could be aided greatly by suggestions on their part.

Many other departments in the school can assist in the health program, and in many other health problems of girls a home economics teacher can assist because of her own close association with them—such as home conditions, unhappy family relationships, too many outside activities, too many home duties, regulation of home programs as to meals, rest, play, work, etc.

But best of all, by far the most lasting impression to be made is the actual practice of health habits by the teacher herself. Only by her own example and sincere interest in making herself a model of perfect health can she expect to inspire those in her charge to achieve the health ideal.

One can readily see the rich opportunities which challenge any home economics department to be of very great service in attempting to fulfill the aims and purposes of a desirable and workable health program in order that she may do her part in training the finest type of homemakers who will be of best possible service to the family and to the community.



Gifts to Eleven Universities Exceed Million Dollars Each

Benefactions amounting to \$81,722,887 were made to universities and colleges in the United States during the year 1923-24, according to figures compiled by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education. This amount includes only gifts and bequests, and does not include grants made by municipalities, States, or the Government.

Donations to the amount of \$100,000 or more were reported by 147 universities, colleges, and professional schools. The largest amount, \$7,780,745, was received by Harvard University. Northwestern University and Yale University each received more than \$5,000,000. Gifts to the University of Chicago and Western Reserve University exceeded \$2,000,000 each. Johns Hopkins University, the University of California, Leland Stanford Junior University, Columbia University, Cornell University, and Carnegie Institute of Technology were recipients of more than a million dollars each during 1923-24. Benefactions of slightly less than a million dollars were reported by the University of Pittsburg, Vassar College, Hamilton College, and Princeton University.

Among colleges exclusively for women which reported gifts exceeding \$100,000 during this period, Vassar leads with \$961,373, followed by Wellesley, Smith, Radcliffe, Agnes Scott in Georgia, and Salem College in North Carolina.



Of the 879 teachers, principals, and supervisors of Dayton (Ohio) public schools, 764 received credit last year for extension work, summer courses, or educational travel. Twenty-seven visited foreign countries. Dayton was represented during the year in 63 different educational institutions.

School Libraries Should Provide for Mental Growth Throughout School Life

Books are the Teaching Tools of Most Worth. No School is Properly Equipped Which is Without Library Facilities. Character of Books Should Correspond with Advancement of Pupils

By ADELINE B. ZACHERT
Director of School Libraries for Pennsylvania

EDUCATION of to-day is primarily concerned with preparing boys and girls to take their places as worthy citizens in the community. It is therefore necessary to teach them how to think for themselves. We no longer tell them what to think by memorizing textbooks. We advise them to procure information from many sources, books, periodicals, etc., to compare them, reach conclusions, and report their findings and opinions to their teachers and classmates. This method of instruction requires many teaching tools of which books and other printed matter are the most used.

To be quickly available to pupils and teachers, books, periodicals, pamphlets, bulletins, clippings, etc., must be classified, catalogued, arranged on shelves, and provided with a system of records. Such a collection, properly organized, in charge of a competent librarian, becomes the book laboratory of the school.

Characteristics of Approved School Library

To serve its purpose adequately the school library should measure up to the standards stated in the following definition: "The high-school library is a carefully selected collection of books, periodicals, pamphlets, clippings, and illustrative material, chosen to meet the needs of the average high-school student, organized according to modern library methods by a trained librarian who can devote her entire time to the school library and is thoroughly interested in boys and girls. This library has a spacious and attractive reading room; it is maintained by adequate annual appropriations, and it is used by every department in the modern high school for information, as a means of awakening or stimulating interest in a subject, and for all that such a room may do by suggestion and inspiration. It is the headquarters for many reading clubs conducted by teachers and librarians working in cooperation; it is used for classes trained by the librarian in the use of the library reference books and tools; it becomes the social center of the school."

No junior high school is properly equipped to meet the needs of boys and girls during three vital school years, which is not provided with adequate library facilities. Foremost authorities on junior high school administration

agree that the school library should be the most attractive, the most beautifully appointed, the most home-like and the least school-like room in the building. Its needs in equipment of furniture, books, periodicals, supplementary instructional aids, and decoration should take precedence over the needs of every other activity in school administration. No other activity of the school, not even the gymnasium, auditorium, shops, fine arts, or even the attractive social activities should be permitted to wield the influence which the junior high school library should exert.

In size and location of the library room, in its furnishing and equipment, the library in the junior high school should be as large, convenient and attractive as that of the senior high school. The book selection, however, and the library service should be especially suited to the needs of junior high school pupils. There should be many books which appeal especially to early adolescent children. The librarian should be chosen for her ability to deal understandingly and sympathetically with children of this difficult but exceedingly interesting age.

Teach Children to Utilize Printed Page

Fully 75 per cent of all the pupils in our elementary schools do not reach the high school. They begin to leave school upon completion of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. They must depend for their future self-education upon the impetus received during their years in the elementary school. If, during that time, they have learned how to turn to the printed page for information, recreation, and inspiration, then they have acquired the means of continuing their education throughout life. It is therefore important that pupils in the grades have ready access to the book treasures which are their rightful heritage. There are books that belong to childhood—myths, fairy tales, folk lore, and legends. These the childhood of the race evolved, and these the children of to-day should have and enjoy. To give the right book to the right child at right time becomes the responsibility of the elementary school. This can best be accomplished through the school library.

Progressive schools are now providing library rooms for pupils in the grades. Under the supervision of a competent teacher-librarian, pupils are taught how

to supplement their studies by the use of books other than texts. They are given an opportunity to read and enjoy carefully selected children's books. In schools where library rooms have not yet been established, the use of classroom libraries is recommended. These are collections of 30 or 40 books suited to the needs of pupils in the first six grades. The books are issued for home reading during the weekly library hour, at which time pupils give informal reports of library books they have read during the preceding week.

The slogan adopted for Pennsylvania, "A library in every school of the Commonwealth," applies with especial force to the one-teacher rural schools everywhere. The good teacher refers her pupils to information found in books which supplement the meager texts. A poor teacher may compensate for her deficiencies by directing pupils to the knowledge stored in books. Both the good and the poor teacher need more and better books for improved teaching.

Precious Minutes Profitably Used in Reading

In an ungraded school where eight subjects are taught to eight grades by one teacher, there must of necessity be times when precious minutes may profitably be used by pupils in the reading of books from the school library. If the books are available, easy of access, and if pupils are encouraged to utilize spare moments by reading library books, much profit and pleasure may be derived.

There should be enough books to supply adequately all the pupils—picture books and easy books for the little ones, and travel, biography, legend, hero stories, and romance for the older pupils. The collection should be large enough to furnish each pupil with a continuous means of mental growth and development during his school life.

Lists of carefully chosen library books to suit the needs of various types of schools are issued by the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania and may be had upon request. Suggestions for the purchase of library books are offered and directions for organizing books into a workable school library are given.

Library books are a good investment. They bring large dividends. They arouse new interests, open new visions, enlarge the horizon, stimulate imagination, and foster ambition. They may become a deciding factor in the choice of a vocation, and in the ethical and moral guidance of boys and girls. They are necessary tools in the school room. Rightly chosen and properly used, they help to make better citizens of boys and girls. Organized for quick and ready reference they multiply the efficiency of every teacher. That is why we have adopted for Pennsylvania the slogan, "A library for every school in the Commonwealth."

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian Bureau of Education

BUCKINGHAM, BURDETTE ROSS. Research for teachers. New York, Chicago [etc.] Silver, Burdett and company (1926) vi, 380 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

"What statistics does the teacher need?" is a question which is answered in this volume. The modern teacher should have at his command the results of the period of educational research which entered upon its present stage about the year 1910. Current school activities are largely concerned with numerical data. The teacher needs the ability to understand the terminology of educational reporting, the ability to record the facts of his experience according to this terminology and the ability to work up the data into usable form. Directions accordingly are here given for handling statistics and record forms, for filing and indexing, and for child accounting. The book also presents in a practical form for teachers the nature and use of intelligence tests, subject-matter tests, and new-type examinations, also methods of grouping and classifying pupils. Other subjects discussed are the process of learning, the educational meaning of error and failure, and reaching the individual. Finally, the author shows how even the classroom teacher may cooperate in educational research.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. The senior high-school curriculum. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago (1926). xii, 160 p. tables. 8°. (Supplementary educational monographs, published in conjunction with the School Review and the Elementary School Journal, no. 29, February, 1926.)

The American public high school at present is in a state of transition, and its curriculum also is in flux. The greatly enlarged number and altered character of the high-school student body has done away with the old selective concept of secondary education, and its curriculum must now be determined by the requirements of social life rather than by preparation for college. The major object of the investigation reported in the present monograph was to discover the extent to which the senior high-school curriculum is being adjusted to the altered purposes of secondary education. Fifteen widely distributed cities, representing progressive tendencies in secondary education, were included in the study. The general plan of curriculum organization and the particular class subjects are both taken up. The study concludes with a discussion of trends and philosophy and with an evaluation of the present high-school program. The author finds that the present curriculum, though in a state of change and appreciably different from the curriculum of a few generations ago, rests primarily on a traditional rather than a scientific basis. He also says that the scientific reconstruction of the secondary school program of studies in the light of a sound social and educational philosophy has not yet even been attempted. Another fundamental need is more professional training for the high-school teachers.

EDGERTON, ALANSON H. Vocational guidance and counseling, including reports on preparation of school counselors. New York, The Macmillan company, 1926. xvii, 213 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Experimental education series, ed. by M. V. O'Shea.)

After pointing out the need for vocational guidance and counseling in junior and senior high schools

and continuation schools, this book presents the results of an extensive investigation among representative schools throughout the United States concerning present practices relating to ways and means of ascertaining for what vocations pupils are best suited, and what the opportunities are in the communities in which they seek employment. The author also discusses various outstanding tendencies in guidance and counseling, both educational and vocational, and makes suggestions for the improvement of methods of advising pupils regarding preparation for and the choice of a vocation. A full bibliography is appended to the volume.

GARRETT, HENRY E. Statistics in psychology and education. New York, London [etc.], Longmans, Green and company, 1926. xiii, 317 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

Students of psychology, education, and the social sciences find under present conditions a knowledge of statistical method very useful. This book aims to present the subject in a simple and concise form understandable to those who have no previous knowledge of statistical method.

HORN, JOHN LOUIS. The American public school; an introduction to the field of tax-supported education in the United States. New York and London, The Century company (1926). xx, 404 p. diagrs. 8°. (The Century education series.)

Material for an introductory course in the study of American education is provided in this volume, suitable either for students preparing for teaching or for other students as a part of their general training for intelligent citizenship. It is also designed for reading by citizens in general who are interested in our public schools. The author presents the origins, fundamental principles, and organization of the American public school in such a way as to show its close relationship to democracy. According to Dr. Charles E. Chadsey, in the editor's introduction, the author "in this volume has not hesitated to express fully his criticism of certain well-established principles in our educational organization and to encourage a type of State control far more radical than that ordinarily accepted by educational administrators." The book details fully the relations of public education to the Government—local, State, and National.

HOWERTH, IRA WOODS. The theory of education; the philosophy of education as derived from the process of organic, psychic, and social evolution. New York, The Century company (1926). xv, 413 p. 8°. (The Century education series.)

A new contribution to the literature on the philosophy of education is presented in this volume. Its central thought is that, as all institutional education is but the control and direction of the education that nature gives, so all the principles and practices of institutional education should be derived from a study of nature. Education is merely a method through which the natural processes of organic, psychic, and social evolution may be more effectively controlled or directed. A study of nature, then, particularly of what is here called natural education, is of fundamental importance in the study of the science and art of education. The mastery of at least the general theory of evolution is a necessary preparation for the most profitable study of any of the great variety of

courses now offered in education. The doctrine of evolution is the foundation of a scientific pedagogy. The book is intended for students of education preparing for teaching.

KLAPPER, PAUL. The teaching of history, with chapters on the teaching of civics; a manual of method for elementary and junior high schools. New York, London, D. Appleton and company [1926] xx, 347 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 12°.

The conviction that the social sciences are destined to play an ever increasingly significant rôle in contemporary life is the impulse which has produced this book, in which is presented a carefully planned and detailed study of the important problems that arise in teaching history, civics, and current social events in the elementary grades as well as in the junior high school. The author seeks to evolve a system of teaching the social environment that will contribute significantly towards the development of civic-mindedness in young people. The study covers the meanings of history and its disciplinary values, the course in history and civics, and methods of teaching, including an analysis of modes of testing pupils in these subjects. An annotated bibliography of reference works for the teacher of history and civics concludes the volume.

KOOS, LEONARD V. Trends in American secondary education. The Inglis lecture, 1925. Cambridge, Harvard University press, 1926. 3 p. 1., 56 p. diagr. 12°.

The lecture comprised in this volume was given on the foundation established in the graduate school of education, Harvard University, to honor the memory of Professor Alexander Inglis, 1879-1924, who devoted his professional career to the study of the problems of secondary education. Noting the profound changes now taking place in American secondary education, the lecturer proceeds to interpret the significance of these changes and their mutual relationships. The current trends in this field which are reviewed in the monograph are the popularization of the secondary school, expansion and functional differentiation of the training program, individualization of instruction, improvement of teaching method, development of allied activities, educational and vocational guidance, and the downward and upward extension of the period of secondary education. These trends have a unity among themselves, and are in harmony with the modern view that the aims of secondary training are social-civic responsibility, recreational and esthetic participation, and physical and occupational efficiency. This enlarged conception of the secondary school promises for the future an institution infinitely better adapted than was the older high school to serve our society.

RUSSELL, CHARLES. Classroom tests; a handbook on the construction and uses of nonstandard tests for the classroom teacher. Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1926] v, 346 p. tables, diagrs., forms. 12°.

In surveying the various forms of tests of pupils' school work, the writer finds that the traditional school examination is based so largely on the subjective judgment of the examiner, and is usually so narrow in test range, that it is difficult to get reliable results. Standard tests, on the other hand, are somewhat difficult to score and to interpret, besides being relatively high in cost. Teacher's classroom tests, or nonstandard tests, which are described in this manual, are readily devised and used, and retain many of the advantages of the standard tests, as well as some of the better qualities of the traditional school examinations. For these reasons they should be used to supplement the standard tests, though not to replace them.

GOOD TEACHING INVOLVES SOUND SCHOLARSHIP AND ABILITY TO INSPIRE ENTHUSIASM ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

MANY factors are involved in the idea of good teaching, such as selection and arrangement of subject matter, organization, and cooperation of the staff engaged in the work; but in the last analysis the whole success or failure of the work turns on the skill of the individual teacher. In fact, the problem of good teaching is primarily a question of the teacher himself. * * *

Excellence in the college teacher involves first of all thorough mastery of the subject and scholarship of the soundest type. Anything less is almost sure to breed a suspicion of superficiality and a lack of confidence on the part of the student, which precludes the possibility of good results. For the purposes of the teacher, however, scholarship is not necessarily to be measured by productive research, for many a man of fine scholarly attainments may lack the opportunity to be productive. The teacher to be good must be able to make a dull subject fascinating, must inflame the imagination of the student, inspire his enthusiasm, arouse his initiative. Lacking this ability, all his scholarship is vain; the great scholar who makes a fascinating subject dull is out of place in the college classroom, especially the freshman classroom.—*Percy T. Walden.*

TWO YEARS CAN BE SQUEEZED OUT OF PRESENT PROCEDURE

FOR half a century and more the leaders of American education have been disturbed that the American boy lags consistently a year or two behind his British and Continental cousin in his educational progress, and particularly that at the end of it he so often presents a distinctly inferior intellectual result. All kinds of devices have been resorted to in the effort to correct this situation, but it inheres in the whole educational system from top to bottom, and is not to be cured by any remedies applied merely at one point. The trouble is compounded of many factors—too little acquaintance with really hard work, too long vacations devoid of study and possibly too many of them, poorly organized programs of study, with imperfect coordination of one stage with the next, and so on. Fortunately, the problem is being seriously attacked by not a few schools, as well as by many of the colleges, and it may already be said to have been demonstrated that two years at least can be squeezed out of the present procedure and still leave a normal youth of nineteen better trained and more genuinely educated than is his brother to-day at twenty-one.

—*James Rowland Angell.*

